AN ANALYSIS OF THE PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT TO OLD AGE BY ELDERLY CITIZENS WHEN THEY INTERACT WITH DEPRIVED CHILDREN

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF ATLANTA UNIVERSITY

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR

THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS

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ATLANTA, GEORGIA

JUNE 1970

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OVERVIEW

Introduction

With increased longevity, the social-psychological nature of the aging process has become a major challenge to social scientists. The changing age composition has increased the number of older individuals and is one of the central features of the demography of this century. In 1961, nine percent of the population in the United States had reached the age of sixty-five; it is predicted that this figure will increase to ten percent before 1970. The magnitude of these statistics becomes more meaningful when compared to data available in 1880. During that year, only three percent of the population was sixty-five or older.[1] Clearly, there have been immense changes in both longevity and national health programs (medi-care) for the aged.

This demographic change presents a special challenge to American society. Because of the historical recency of this development, in light of instrumental and activist values, it presents a paradox to our society which places special accent on youth. One common approach has been to view the problem of the aged as the "Achilles Heel" of our way of life. The implication of this is that, in the past, the only possible status for

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[1]Elaine Cumming and William Henry, Growing Old (New York: Basic Books, 1961), p. V.

older people was that of "discards" who could not possibly have a positive significance in the system. Rather, they constituted a kind of philantropic burden.[1]

Institutionalized children often are deprived socially for many reasons--parents die, move away or find it difficult to visit the child. Parental interest is often lost once the child is placed in an institution. The problem is further complicated by the fact that building supervisors and attendents, busy with providing care to the residents, usually have little time to give affection or individual attention to the children. Needed emotional support must come from other children. However, these children are suffering from the same psychological and emotional difficulties. Thus, one of the greatest needs of the deprived child is to have a close relationship with another person who is interested in and expresses a desire to help him.

Problem

Elderly citizens who have ceased to be members of the working population and are now faced with the task of adjusting to their new role as "senior citizen" could form a close relationship with a deprived child, and give him the emotional support needed.

Performing this function could enable the elderly citizens to adjust more easily. As Kutner has indicated in Five Hundred Over Sixty, inner and more personal forces that can make for either good or poor personal adjustment are levels of recognition, companionship and comfort.[2] Because

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[1] Ibid., p. VI.

[2] Bernard Kutner, et. al., Five Hundred Over Sixty (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1956), p. 17.

of the gap in role transition, there is a need for elderly adults' adjustment. It is the position of the current study that children may be able to provide needed comfort and companionship for senior citizens. To that end, the present investigation attempted to answer the following general question, does interaction between elderly adults and deprived children alter the personal adjustment of elderly adults to old age?

Eight aspects related to the personal adjustment of elderly adults were selected for investigation. They are: health, friends, work, security, religion, usefulness, happiness and family.

Hypothesis

In the present study, the general hypothesis is:

> There is no significant difference ($p<.05$) between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not, with respect to their personal adjustment to old age as measured by their total score on the Attitude Inventory developed by Ruth Cavan.

Since the inventory is divided into eight categories there are eight sub-hypotheses to the general hypothesis.

1. There is no significant difference ($p<.05$) between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not, with respect to their score on the health category of the Attitude Inventory.

2. There is no significant difference ($p<.05$) between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not, with respect to their score on the friends category of the Attitude Inventory.

3. There is no significant difference ($p<.05$) between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not, with respect to their score on the work category of the Attitude Inventory.

4. There is no significant difference ($p<.05$) between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not, with respect to their score on the security category of the Attitude Inventory.

5. There is no significant difference ($p<.05$) between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not, with respect to their score on the religion category of the Attitude Inventory.

6. There is no significant difference ($p<.05$) between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not, with respect to their score on the usefulness category of the Attitude Inventory.

7. There is no significant difference ($p<.05$) between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not, with respect to their score on the happiness category of the Attitude Inventory.

8. There is no significant difference ($p<.05$) between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not, with respect to their score on the family category of the Attitude Inventory.

Purpose

The purpose of the present investigation was to determine if the interaction with deprived children had any effect on the personal adjustment to old age by elderly citizens.

Definition of Terms

Listed below are brief definitions of terms used in the study.

Personal Adjustment.--A process through which an individual achieves integrated expression of his wishes and aspirations in ways that also satisfy the expectations and demands of society.[1]

Elderly Adults.--These persons have reached the last period of a normal span of life, the period which terminates with death.[2] The period commences when a person is no longer able to maintain some stated proportions of the achievements of the average adult in his culture.[3]

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[1]Ruth Cavan, et. al., Personal Adjustment in Old Age (Chicago: Science Research Associates Inc., 1949), p. 11.

[2]Ibid., p. 1.

[3]Ibid., p. 8.

Control Group.--Elderly adults in the study population who are not interacting with deprived children during this period in their lives.

Experimental Group.--These elderly adults played a family type role as a "special friend" or substitute grandparent for the particular child to whom they were assigned and were engaged actively in very close relationships with them.

Deprived Children.--These individuals aged five and under were residing in an institution for orphaned and emotionally disturbed children.

Interaction.--It is the reciprocal influencing of the acts of persons and groups.[1] For this study, interaction was the reciprocal influence of elderly adults and deprived children.

Survey of Literature

The subject of aging includes economic, social, psychological and related aspects. In this section, studies relating to these factors will be reviewed since these appear to have greater implications to the adjustment patterns of elderly adults.

Economic Aspects.--Compulsory retirement means that age sets a limit and restricts the right of the individual to work beyond a given age. It is accompanied by fundamental economic and social changes and relationships: the separation of income from its traditional source--employment, and the substitution of governmental and private pensions as an earned retirement right. These points are discussed by Burns.[2]

The income of the retired person has two dimensions: one, the source of money income, and two, changes in real income. The sources of

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[1] Julius Gould and William Kolb, A Dictionary of the Social Sciences (New York: The Free Press, 1964), p. 657.

[2] Robert Burns, "Economic Aspects of Aging and Retirement," American Journal of Sociology, 59 (1954), 384-398.

of money income generally are: (a) the accumulated value of his personal economic resources such as Savings Bank Accounts, Government Savings Bonds and other investment securities, owned rental properties, home ownership, paid-up value of life insurance policies and similar assets; (b) the value of his monthly primary Old Age, Survivors, and Disability Insurance pension benefit if his retirement age and work-status make him eligible for such benefits; and, (c) private pensions supplemental to Social Security.[1] While OASDI benefits are, by far, the most widespread source of retirement income, the issue of the impact of inflation has also been the subject of serious consideration. In this connection, it is worthwhile to note the observation of the White House Conference on Aging:

> The benefit provisions under OASDI were unchanged from the time benefits first became payable in January 1940 until the 1950 Social Security Act Amendments. During the war and the immediate postwar years, the Congress was absorbed in other problems. As a consequence with the inflation which occurred during these years, the purchasing power of a benefit awarded in 1940 had been cut almost in half by mid-1950.
>
> Newly awarded benefits increased somewhat during this period as the higher wartime wages pushed up the average earnings on which the benefits were based. But the man who had retired in 1940 had the same number of dollars coming monthly in mid-1950 as ten years earlier and these dollars brought only a little more than half as much as he had counted on when he retired.
>
> The 1950 amendments restored the 1940 purchasing power of the benefits of persons on the rolls--but of course, did nothing to restore retroactively the loss that had been suffered the previous decade. Since 1950, Congress has made adjustments periodically--in 1952, 1954, and 1958 for persons on the rolls as well as for future beneficiaries. These adjustments have reflected some of the increase that occurred in real per capita national output.[2]

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[1] U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Impact of Inflation on Retired Persons, (Washington, D. C., 1961).

[2] Ibid., p. 6.

While the Social Security Act Amendments reflect the government policy to minimize the decline in real income of the retired persons, a recent survey of the National Industrial Conference Board disclosed that a substantial proportion of companies extended Group Life Insurance to employees even after they retired.[1]

Budgeting for older people has appeared as the theme of some investigations. Tabulations and analysis of information on older persons' income, expenditure and savings have augmented our knowledge of how older people live, what income and resources are available to them, and how their expenditures vary in different circumstances.[2] Studies of workers' budgets emphasize the importance of recognizing that the budgetary requirements of retired persons as a group are constantly changing, not because the prices are changing appreciably, but because the composition of the group itself has been changing, along with the social and economic factors which affect the group.[3]

The employment aspects of the older worker deal with an array of subjects such as job performance, employment opportunities, impact of technological changes, and counseling and retraining of older workers. In general, these studies are problem oriented.[4]

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[1] "Life Insurance for Retired Employees," Management Record, 36 (February, 1962), 12-19.

[2] See for example, Sidney Goldstein, Consumption Patterns of the Aged (University of Pennsylvania, 1960).

[3] United States Department of Labor, BLS, Workers' Budgets in the United States (Washington, D. C., 1947), p. 7.

[4] See for example, U. S. Department of Labor, Job Performance and Age, 1956; Impact of Automation, 1960. Walter Franke, "Employment Opportunities for Older People," Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1957; U. S. Department of Labor, BES, Counseling and Placement Service for Older Workers, 1956.

From the point of view of the supply side of the labor market, the situation of the "aged" was exemplified best by the study of Steiner and Dorfman. They questioned about three thousand persons in households where at least one person was sixty-five years of age. One of the major findings of this study was that a large majority of people who were not working said that they were not well enough to work. Health status was one of the prominent factors deterring the retired employees from returning to the labor market even on a part-time basis. Steiner and Dorfman also suggested an extremely useful theoretical construct--the "aged" do not form a homogeneous group. That is to say, depending on the income receipts, on the site of residence, on the position of the older individual in the household and on other related criteria, the older population is comprised of several subgroups.[1]

Social Aspects.--Research in the area of social aspects of older people has concerned itself with many social issues such as the family structure and relationships, social adjustment to retired life, residential mobility, the leisure-time activities and the subculture of aging. A perusal of these studies suggests that the distinction between the older people and the retired persons is rather nebulous.

Of all the institutions which condition the behavior and adjustment of the individual, perhaps none is more important than the family. This may be particularly true for older people inasmuch as the later years in life often mark a decline of active participation in other social insti-

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[1]Peter Steiner and Robert Dorfman, The Economic Status of the Aged (Berkeley and Los Angeles, California: University of California, 1957).

tutions. Typically, in a developmental analysis of the family, comparisons are made between the consanguine or the extended family of earlier times and the conjugal or nuclear family of today. The former represents a kind of organization which was particularly well adapted to self-sufficiency in a stable pre-industrial environment. Each member of the extended kinship group had duties to perform for his family which was the producing unit of the economy as well as its consuming unit.

Although early industrialization was accommodated to the existing patterns of family organization, nevertheless, a new emphasis was emerging--the disintegration of the extended family. Older people, before the industrialization, Burgess held, experienced their main satisfaction in life through their membership in the extended family.[1] Burgess cited several trends which contributed to the breakup of the extended family: (a) change from home to factory production, (b) rise of large organizations and (c) automation and the increase of leisure-time. Where the extended family still flourishes, as in Bethnal Green--a suburb of London--Townsend found that older persons and their families engaged in a system of reciprocal services. Based on extensive interviews, he proposed that if problems and processes of aging are to be investigated, old people should be studied as members of families.[2] Replacement of the extended family by conjugal family was observed by Hutchinson,[3] also. In a report

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[1]Ernest Burgess, "Family Structure and Relationships," Aging in Western Societies (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1960), p. 272.

[2]Peter Townsend, The Family Life of Old People (London: Routeledge and Kegan Paul, 1957), p. 32.

[3]Bertram Hutchinson, Old People in A Modern Australian Community (Victoria: Melbourne University Press, 1954).

based on a study of 474 retired persons, Weber concluded that the organized life of older people could best be understood in terms of the community background.[1]

In a study of adjustment in retired life, Kutner, Fanshel et. al investigated such issues as the social and cultural factors which facilitated adjustment to aging and the types of people who successfully adjusted themselves to aging.[2] Some of their major findings were that married people tend to be better adjusted than single or widowed persons: of all values involved in adjustment to retirement, the feeling of being useful and wanted is paramount; and, health is associated closely with good adjustment.

Although residential mobility of retired persons has been less subjected to inquiry, Moore has analyzed excellently the locational choice of the retired worker.[3] He observed that during a person's working life, locational choice is less possible, for, one must reside near one's job irrespective of the features of the location. During retirement one may have greater freedom of choice with respect to where one resides. Then what factors enter in the locational decisions of the retired workers? Moore held that long established social groups, habit adjustments to the demands of the environment, and the ownership of a home--all help make

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[1]Irving Webler, "The Organized Social Life of the Retired," American Journal of Sociology, 59 (1954), 339.

[2]Bernard Kutner, David Fanshel, et. al., Five Hundred Over Sixty (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1956).

[3]Elon Moore, The Nature of Retirement (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1959), pp. 132-150.

the present locality the first choice as a retirement location. In conjunction with these decisive factors, proximity to children has been reported as a key variable in the locational choice of the retired. Streib reported that nearly sixty-five percent of the aged expected to live near their children.[1]

Retirement from one's occupation marks the end of the major economic activity and at the same time optimizes one's leisure time. Leisure time activities of the aged have been studied extensively. Riesman and Bloomberg inquired into the question of whether or not work and leisure were becoming indistinct in the modern technological world.[2] Data on how persons of various ages engage themselves in leisure-time activities are available in a report on a national survey.[3] The entire volume of Aging and Leisure offers diversified data and views on the leisure-time role and activities of the aged.[4]

The concept of a subculture of aging, propounded by Rose, is significant from a research point of view. He holds that a subculture could develop within any category of population when its members interact with each other more than they interact with persons in other categories. If the aged interact with the aged alone, the subculture of aging would emerge. The factors which deter such a subculture of aging from widespread

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[1]Gordon Streib, et. al., "Family Patterns in Retirement," Journal of Social Issues, 14 (1958), 60.

[2]David Riesman and William Bloomberg, "Work and Leisure: Fusion or Polarity?" Research in Industrial and Human Relations (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957).

[3]Opinion Research Corporation, The Public Appraises Movies, Volume 2 (Princeton, New Jersey, 1957).

[4]Robert Kleemier, Aging and Leisure (New York: Oxford University Press, 1961).

prevalence, according to Rose, are: (a) contracts with the family, (b) impact of mass media, (c) continued employment, and (d) an attitude of active resistance to aging.[1]

Retirement Aspects.--The various aspects of retirement which research studies encompass are in regard to the meaning of retirement, the controversy of compulsory versus flexible retirement age, retirement planning, pension design and the broad area of adjustment to retired life.

To most people, retirement means administrative retirement--a form which developed during the era of rapid industrialization in the early part of the present century and which received added impetus with the passage of the Social Security Act in 1935. When an employed individual reaches a given age or has worked a specific number of years, or both, he is normally expected or even required to terminate his employed status. In the words of Barron, "retirement in this sense is an aspect of the personal policy of an organization and usually includes the provision of reduced payments to the retired person, in the form of a pension."[2] In the administrative sense, the term retirement ordinarily has an economic connotation. That is, it refers to the separation of an individual from his job, is conditioned generally by his age, and results in continuation of the relation with one's employer only to the extent of the pension payment proposition. Such a definition of retirement, in the administrative sense, it is held, does not provide a perspective broad enough to inculcate the range and variety of social patterns engendered by retirement.

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[1]Arnold Rose, "The Subculture of Aging: A Topic for Sociological Research," The Gerontologist, 2 (1962), 127.

[2]Milton Barron, The Aging American (New York: Thomas Crowell Company, 1961), p. 115.

An alternative--the gerontological approach--has been to define retirement in such a manner as to place it in the broad conceptual framework of Role Theory. Donahue, Orbach and Pollak are the Proponents of this approach, and according to their observation:

> Retirement heralds a far reaching change in a person's social role as a functioning member of society and, as such, carries with it consequential implications of change in status.
>
> As a process, retirement is a prescribed transition from the position of an economically active person to the position of an economically non-active person in accordance with the norms through which society defines this change. . .
>
> We have spoken of retirement as a new social role which involves major social change in a person's position and status in society. . .
>
> A framework for understanding retirement on both the level of society and that of the person is available through the broad perspective of role theory. Indeed one might say that the fundamental social psychological problem of the retirement role is the lack of clarity, and of ambiguity more than a change in an aspect of social life. It is a new form of social life. . .[1]

It may be added that, as a process, retirement is not only a prescribed transition from the position of an economically active person to the position of an economically non-active person, but also a transition from the position of an economically active person to the position of a non-economically active person.

Related to the meaning of retirement from the point of view of older workers themselves is the volume by Friedman and Havinghurst which reports a set of studies of the significance of work in the lives of people and

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[1]Wilma Donahue, H. Orback and O. Pollak, "Retirement: The Emerging Social Pattern," Handbook of Social Gerontology (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960), pp. 330-406.

of the relations between the significance of work and attitude toward retirement.[1] They studied occupational groups such as steel workers, coal miners, retail sales persons, skilled craftsmen and older physicians. A brief discussion of their hypotheses and findings will disclose the differences in the meaning of retirement among different occupational groups. To summarize Friedman and Havighurst in their own words:

> We planned the series of studies with the following hypotheses in mind:
>
> 1. Workers at the lower skill and socioeconomic levels regard their work more frequently as merely a way to earn a living and in general recognize fewer extra-financial meanings in their work than do workers of higher skill and socioeconomic levels.
>
> 2. Workers who regard work primarily in terms of its financial meaning will be more favorable toward retirement at age 65 than workers who experience more extra-financial meanings in their work.
>
> 3. Those persons who stress meanings of work other than those earning a living will prefer to continue working past 65.[2]
>
> As we progressed up the occupational and skill ladders, we found an increasing stress on the extra-meaning of work coupled with an increasing proportion of men who were unwilling to retire at the "normal" retirement age of 65. And within each of the groups studied we found that the individual workers who stressed the extra-economic meanings of work were also the ones who were least likely to want to retire at age 65.[3]
>
> The converse of our proposition that workers who have found the extra-meanings of work to be important in their lives would be reluctant to retire at an arbitrary set age, was that workers who have not found these satisfactions in their work-careers would welcome the chance to leave their jobs for retirement. Supporting this, we

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[1] Eugene Friedmann and R. Havighurst, The Meaning of Work and Retirement (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954).

[2] Ibid., p. 170.

[3] Ibid., pp. 182-183.

> found a decreasing proportion of men who wanted to retire at 65 in the higher status and skill group where the extra-meanings of work were stressed most strongly.[1]
>
> In evaluating our findings, we must guard against two possible sorts of bias. First, the bias of over enthusiasm which might lead us to underestimate the iron necessity of work for the overwhelming majority of men in our society--a need which is not as yet alleviated by the average retirement pension. . . Our second possible source of bias might be termed as the bias of special pleading. The temptation to imply that, because the worker has found added significance in his job, depriving him of it through compulsory retirement--even with an adequate income--would represent a grave social injustice. No such case can be made in any categorical fashion on the basis of our findings.[2]

In brief, one of the paramount points made by Friedman and Havighurst, on the basis of their findings, is that decision to retire from work, among workers of a given socioeconomic class, is also a function of the extra-economic meaning which the person involved derives from his work. The problem of retirement is to acquire the extra-economic values which work carries with it, and to acquire them through some form of instrumental activity in retired life. To reiterate, this notion is somewhat similar to the observation of Donahue, et al., who held that retirement is a transition from an economically active position to a position of an economically non-active person.[3]

Perhaps no other topic has occasioned more discussion and controversy in recent years than the issue of fixed retirement age. Flexibility in retirement appears to be the general advocacy of many studies.[4]

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[1] Ibid., p. 194.

[2] Ibid., pp. 195-196.

[3] Donahue, op. cit., p. 406.

[4] See for example, Beatrice Bower, "Second Thoughts on Compulsory

As it stands now, sixty fifth year, for men, is the most common age of retirement in the United States. Rose made an interesting observation regarding the role of the Social Security Act:

> The age of 65 has more or less come to be considered as the age of entering old age in American society. It seems likely that the Social Security Act of 1935 did more to define this limit rather than any single event. Probably most private pension schemes adopted or proposed since 1935 have taken the age of 65 as the date of retirement. Compulsory retirement requirements have become much more frequent since 1935, and they have often adopted 65 as the age of effectuation. . .[1]

Burns summarized the pros and cons of compulsory retirement age. His summary tends more to emphasize objective aspects and minimizes the subjective appeals and conflicts of values that have permeated the discussion of compulsory and flexible retirement.[2]

Despite an increase in the number of pension plans there was no orderly compilation of principles and factors which could be considered as a guide to management in arriving at decisions relating to pension design and appraisal. However, an analytical procedure has been suggested by Johnson who employed a threefold research procedure: (a) an analysis of the issues in the planning and administrative aspects of pensions, (b) the building of an appraisal procedure, and (c) the testing of

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Retirement," Management Record, 13 (1951), 50-52; G. E. Johnson, "Is Compulsory Retirement Ever Justified," Journal of Gerontology, 6 (1951), 263-271; J. Corson and J. W. McConnel, Economic Needs of Older People (New York: Twentieth Century Fund, 1956).

[1]Rose, op. cit., p. 127.

[2]Robert Burns, "Some Unsettled Issues of Retirement Policy," Journal of Business, 27 (1954), 137-145.

that procedure in an actual case situation.[1]

This study besides systematically developing the principles which may be employed successfully as a guide to pension design and appraisal also suggested a research approach oriented to investigating fundamental issues of the retirement phenomenon.

From the point of view of management, retirement represents an extension of the general principles of business organization, that is, rational organization of the work force. This means that older workers have to be replaced by younger workers. How to prepare the older workers to relinquish their active occupational roles and make a gradual transition to retired life has been the theme of retirement counseling on the part of management and unions. Perrow, reporting on a nation-wide survey of company practices, observed that in 1952 fifty percent of the companies in the sample claimed that they offered some type of counseling and by 1954 this proportion had increased to 65 percent.[2] The National Industrial Conference Board survey revealed that about one-fifth of their sample had formal programs covering such subjects as the amount of pension benefit and procedure for filing for OASDI.[3]

Despite the encouraging reports, the response of retirants to retirement planning appears to have been less than adequate. For example, the Cornell Study reported that only twenty percent of the respondents

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[1]Alton Johnson, A Suggested Analytical Procedure for Pension Design and Appraisal (Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1957).

[2]C. Perrow, "Are Retirement Adjustment Programs Necessary," Harvard Business Review, 35 (1957), 115.

[3]National Industrial Conference Board, Retirement of Employees, (New York: 1955), p. 38.

asserted that they made plans for their retirement years.[1] In general, most studies have shown that the majority of workers give little precise thought to retirement planning. This may reflect the lack of a social model of retirement life which can be used by the worker to fashion his plans, or perhaps, as Havighurst contends, the problem is that most Americans are not ready to apply the principle of equivalence of work and play, and they have too little accomplishment in the lesiure arts to make retirement life attractive.[2]

The distinction between older individuals and retired persons, from the point of view of studies relating to psychological adjustment becomes nil. In a number of these studies attitudinal and morale scales have been employed as measuring instruments. A critique of these studies was done by Kuhlen.[3]

In general, research on age-related psychological changes has followed four paths: investigation of mental disorders, psycho-motor changes, personality changes and intellectual change in the later years. Perhaps the key to much of the literature on the psychology of aging is the conception of senility--a diagnosis which is made for many older disoriented persons.

Summary.--Studies relating to the economic aspects of the aged and the retired are concerned with the source of income, the impact of infla-

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[1]Streib, op. cit., p. 50.

[2]Robert Havighurst, "Flexibility and Social Roles of the Retired," American Journal of Sociology, 59 (1954), 311.

[3]R. G. Kuhlen, "Aging and Life Adjustment," Handbook of Aging and the Individual: Psychological and Biological Aspects, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1959).

tion on pensions, budgeting and employment situation of older workers. Research in the area of social aspects deals with the family structure and relationships, the leisure-time roles, social adjustment to retired life and the residential mobility. The various aspects of occupational retirement which the studies encompass are in regard to the meaning of retirement, the controversy about the compulsory and flexible retirement age, preparation and planning for retirement, pension design and personal adjustment to retired life.

Some of these studies typify the prototype of extensive community studies permeating into the economic and social aspects. Others shed additional light on particular issues. Although many of the studies are marked by a reflection of the essentially pragmatic approach, some social scientists have either examined or redefined theoretical propositions which may become the basis for future research.

Theoretical Orientation

A number of empirical studies and theoretical discussions disclose that there are at the present time two major theories of successful aging; the activity theory and the disengagement theory.

Most gerontologist favor the activity theory in that they believe the majority of older persons will maintain the activities and attitudes of middle age as long as possible and then find substitutes for those activities they are forced to give up because of old age.

Followers of the disengagement theory, as exemplified in the works of Cumming and Henry,[1] take the position that as people grow older they

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[1]Elaine Cumming and William Henry, Growing Old (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1961).

normally curtail activities in which they have been involved during earlier years and middle age. A main proposition of this theoretical orientation is that the disengagement process takes place naturally and voluntarily on the part of older persons, and as such, reduced participation in old age is not only to be expected but is desirable for many persons.

Proponents of the activity theory accept the obvious fact that disengagement does take place with aging, but take the position that it does not occur naturally or voluntarily; rather they believe it occurs most generally against the will and desire of the person because of pressures exerted in the social structure. Following are several pertinent studies indicating the difficulty encountered in establishing a unidimensional definition of successful aging.

In studying elderly people in Florida, Lebo suggested several factors that appeared to be related to happiness in old age. Physical health did not appear to influence happiness ratings, but happier people perceived themselves as being in poorer health than they actually were. Although financial security was found to be important to happiness, other factors were also critical. Happier people had more close friends, more out-of-state visitors and participated in organizations more frequently than did subjects who reported they were unhappy. The data indicated that subjects identified as happiest were more prepared for new activities and community involvement than were their unhappy neighbors.[1]

Britton attempted to determine the dimensions underlying seven different measures of personal adjustment among the aged. Studying 123

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[1] Dell Lebo, "Some Factors Said to Make for Happiness in Old Age," Journal of Clinical Psychology, IX (1953), 387.

residents of a rural community, he found three dimensions--an activity factor, a sociability factor and a composure-serenity-integrity factor. The last dimension suggested a sense of satisfaction with oneself and one's accomplishments and a disinterest in activity and social involvement. This study was one of the early examples of the conflict concerning what constitutes good personal adjustment in old age--continued activity or disengagement.[1]

Meier and Bell in a study of the differential access of people to their life goals found that one of the reasons older persons felt lost and unhappy was that with increasing age, the goals of monetary success, prestige, power and regular employment become more difficult to achieve. The reduced status role is largely responsible for a decrease in life satisfaction and an increase in despair, hopelessness, and discouragement.[2]

Lipman reported that one factor that kept 100 retired couples in Miami from being as happy as when they were younger was health insecurity. Regarding their greatest sources of satisfaction in the later years, home, family and children ranked first with the majority of the couples. The circle of meaningful social relationships with older persons was thus narrowing with age, and preoccupation with one's own health indicated a gradual disengagement was taking place.[3]

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[1]Joseph H. Britton, "Dimensions of Adjustment of Older Adults," Journal of Gerontology, XVIII (January, 1963), 64.

[2]D. L. Meier and Wendell Bell, "Anomia and Differential Access to Life Goals," American Sociological Review, XXIV (April, 1959), 201.

[3]Aaron Lipman, "Health Insecurity of the Aged," The Gerontologist, II (June, 1962), 101.

Zborowski investigated the effects of aging upon the recreational activities of a group of individuals over 50 years of age. He obtained detailed information with regard to their recreational activities at the age of forty and at their present age. Contrary to the implications of the disengagement theory, this study showed little evidence to support the concept of voluntary withdrawal with age increase. Zborowski found that if the pattern of living has been oriented toward activity and social participation, older people tend to maintain the same pattern in spite of increasing age or the attitudes of society. On the contrary, if their preferences were oriented toward solitary modes of living, they may welcome the opportunity for "disengagement" as a legitimate means of being excused from community responsibility, since social attitudes favor withdrawal in old age. The concept of successful aging, Zborowski believed, can be defined as the "opportunity and ability for maintaining one's preferred pattern of living."[1] This is different for large groups of individuals and is probably based upon their cultural and subcultural backgrounds as well as their individual personalities.

Another study, by Maddox and Eisdorfer examined the two variables, activity and morale, among a panel of 250 older volunteer subjects. Their findings gave limited support to the idea that activity tends to decrease as age increases. But analysis of their data makes it clear that important antecedents and intervening variables such as socioeconomic status and self image are obscured in such an interpretation. The same applies to the

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[1]Mark Zborowski, "Aging and Recreation," Journal of Gerontology, 17 (July, 1962), 309.

relationship between activity and morale. Morale, was found to be more likely maintained among the elderly by including the more sedentary types of activity such as reading and hobbies, than by limiting their activities to interpersonal relations with other people. The common notion that "busy people are happy people" would have to be qualified by what kind of business is most likely to maintain high morale among elderly people.[1]

Sklar and Edwards reported a factor-analytic study of men between the age of 65 and 80 years of age. A broad range of personality and biographical attributes were included, but not a single variable correlated with age; and age emerged as a pure one-variable factor. The subjects of this study apparently remained much the same in personality regardless of the increase in age.[2]

Prasad designed a study to determine both the activity and the disengagement theories on 945 retired industrial workers. He found that the disengagement approach was not well suited to retired industrial workers. Data also showed that the majority of retired workers in his study engaged in some kind of activity outside the home and the degree to which they engaged was a function of their health and living status, and not their age. The activity approach, it was concluded, was the more

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[1]George Maddox and Carl Eisdorfer, "Some Correlates of Activity and Morale Among the Elderly," Social Forces, 40 (March, 1962), 259-60.

[2]M. Sklar and A. E. Edwards, "Presbycusis: A Factor Analysis of Hearing and Psychological Characteristics of Men Over 65 Years of Age," Journal of Auditory Research, 2 (1962), 207.

realistic conceptual scheme.[1]

Further examining the theory of disengagement as a function of older age, Strauss studied the relationship between perception of the environment and the extent of involvement in the surroundings among aged persons. Those who felt they were rejected by society engaged in social interaction less frequently than those who did not see themselves in unsatisfying or devaluated roles because of their advanced age. Age, sex, living conditions, number of living children and other descriptive variables correlated lowly or not at all with community involvement. It was concluded that the findings disagreed with research which relates a progressive detachment from interest in the surroundings to age alone.[2]

Meltzer studied age differences in happiness and life adjustment among 257 employees of a paper company. He found that older workers feel they are receiving their share of happiness in significantly greater proportions than is true with younger workers; that work takes on more significance with age, while spare time decreases in significance with age; and that older workers are more satisfied with the work they have to do than are younger workers.[3]

Lowenthal found in a study of older people admitted to a psychiatric screening ward that one of the reasons older people become dissatisfied,

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[1] S. B. Prasad, "The Activity Approach to a Theory of Occupational Retirement," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1963).

[2] Dorothy Strauss, "The Relationship Between Perception of the Environment and the Retrenchment Syndrome in a Geriatric Population," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, New York University, 1963).

[3] H. Meltzer, "Age Differences in Happiness and Life Adjustments of Workers," Journal of Gerontology, 18 (January, 1963), 70.

maladjusted, and even suffer from mental disorders is that as social contacts decrease with age, the person feels isolated, lost and rejected.[1]

Linking physical illness with isolation and both with low morale, Kutner and his colleagues in a survey of community aged in New York found that respondents categorized as isolates were in poorer health than non-isolates. They postulate that among persons of very low socioeconomic status, isolation is more likely to accompany declining health and from illness and isolation arises a sense of futility, cynicism or resignation that expresses itself in a variety of ways.[2]

The foregoing studies indicate agreement with Havinghurst who suggested that an operational definition of successful aging should not assume that either an activity or disengagement emphasis by itself is desirable.[3] While it would appear that many older persons prefer to disengage themselves from activities and attitudes of middle age as they grow older, some are happy and satisfied with curtailed life. However, it is probable that a good proportion of the nation's older persons are forced to curtail their activities by pressures which are brought to bear on them through the circumstances of the social structure.

The elderly persons sampled in the present study exemplify both the activity and disengagement approaches. Both groups, were forced, by old

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[1]M. F. Lowenthal, "Social Isolation and Mental Illness in Old Age," American Sociological Review, 29 (February, 1964), 70.

[2]Kutner, Growing Old, p. 157.

[3]Robert J. Havinghurst, "Successful Aging," Gerontology, A Book of Readings, ed. Clyde B. Vedder (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1956), p. 76.

age to curtail the normal activities of the average adult in our society. The experimental group was able to engage in a new activity, working with deprived children. The control group was not engaged in any work-like activity.

Research Design

Instrumentation.--The Chicago Attitude Inventory, devised to secure statements dealing with attitudes toward self and activities, was the device utilized to evaluate the personal adjustment of the subjects in the current investigation.[1] This inventory was developed and used by Ruth Cavan at the University of Chicago in 1949. Cavan studied 2,988 Caucasians having a cross-section of different ethnic backgrounds, residing in both rural and urban areas throughout the United States.[2] The sample was drawn from the United States Sixteenth Census.[3] Data were secured by interviews and mailing schedules.[4]

The inventory consists of 56 attitudinal statements in eight categories: Health, Friends, Work, Economic Security, Religion, Feeling of Usefulness, Happiness, and Family.

The inventory is based upon the following definition and the theory of adjustment. A person who is well adjusted lives a life that is reasonably satisfactory to himself and meets the expectations of society reasonably well. This definition points to the fact that personal adjust-

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[1]Robert J. Havinghurst, "Validity of Chicago Attitude Inventory as a Measure of Personal Adjustment in Old Age," Journal of Abnormal Psychology, XLVI (January, 1951), 24.

[2]Cavan, op. cit., p. 47.

[3]Ibid., p. 40.

[4]Ibid., p. 48.

ment has two essential aspects, subjective and objective. The subjective aspect of adjustment consists of a person's feelings about himself and his life. The objective aspect consists of the person's reputation, his status and his participation in activities and relationships which are judged desirable or undesirable in the society in which he lives.[1]

Validation of this instrument may proceed in either of two ways. First, it may be checked against the results of a thorough and intensive questioning of the subject. The purpose of the more intensive questioning is to find out whether the respondent really feels the way he reports himself to feel, whether he is really as happy, content in his work, sure of his place in the affections of his friends, as he reports himself to be on the Inventory. This test of validity proceeds on the premise that if attitude scores are correlated highly with judges' ratings; the Attitude Inventory is a valid measure of personal adjustment.[2]

A second method of testing the validity of the Attitude Inventory is to check it against information concerning the respondents' reputation, actual health, economic status and social participation. The assumption is that good adjustment goes with good health, with economic security, with active participation in the family, neighborhood and community and with a good general reputation. This test of validity proceeds on the premise that if attitude scores are highly correlated with the more objective indices of adjustment, the Attitude Inventory is a valid

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[1] Ibid., Chapter II.

[2] Havinghurst, "Validity of the Chicago Attitude Inventory as a Measure of Personal Adjustment in Old Age," op. cit., p. 24.

measure of personal adjustment.[1]

The Attitude Inventory attempts to measure the person's feelings about himself and his life. Its results are expressed in a total score and eight subscores, which may be taken as indices of the individual's adjustment. To score the inventory, Cavan assigned weights of one through seven, with one as the weight for the least favorable attitude. Weights one, two and three indicated agreement with unfavorable attitudes of varying degrees of intensity; weight four indicated agreement with a fairly neutral attitude; weights five, six and seven indicated agreement with favorable attitudes of three degrees of intensity. To secure the score for each category, the mean of the weights was computed for statements with which the subject agreed. Thus, if the statements with which the subject agreed had weights four, five, and six, the score was five; if four and six, the score was also five; if one, three and four, the score was two point seven (2.7). For convenience, the nearest whole number was used when there was a decimal. The total attitude score was the sum of the scores of all categories. The higher the score, the greater had been the number of favorable reactions, and, by implication, the more adequate was the individual's adjustment.[2]

Because the weighted method of scoring was cumbersome, the attempt was made to discover a simpler method that would give a comparable result. For that purpose experiments were made with alternative methods. These methods were tried on a sample of 200 cases.

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[1] Ibid., p. 25.

[2] Cavan, op. cit., p. 117.

The scoring methods used with the 200 sample cases were as follows:

A. The Single Score or Grand Mean Technique--this is obtained by summing the mean weighted scores for each category comprising the Inventory (original method).

B. Using only yes answers and omitting the middle (neutral) questions in each category, the sum of the favorable yes answers minus the sum of unfavorable yes answers.

C. Using both yes and no answers and omitting the middle (neutral) question in each category, the sum of favorable answers.[1]

If method A (the original method) is thought of as the most accurate method of scoring, then methods B and C appear to be acceptable alternatives, for they give scores very highly correlated with the scores obtained by method A. Method C; the simple score of the favorable answers, whether yes or no, is the easiest to use. It assumes, however, that both yes and no answers have been checked. Method B, the difference between favorable and unfavorable yes answers, appears to be the simplest and most usable method of scoring as it does not assume that all no answers are checked. Furthermore, method B ignores uncertain responses and omissions, while method C counts these as unfavorable responses. Cavan selected method B for future use.[2]

Since Cavan showed that method B was the better method for scoring the inventory, the present research utilized this method.

Statistical Method.--After rthe data were collected and scored, the statistical technique, partition of chi square in a three-way contingency

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[1] Ibid., pp. 118-119.

[2] Ibid., p. 119.

table was used to ascertain if there was a relationship between treatment, interaction with deprived children, and the response of the individual--positive or negative to the questionnaire.

Chi square is a general-purpose statistic that has many and diverse applications. Its most common use is in connection with the data in the form of frequencies or data that can be reduced to frequencies. This includes proportions and even probabilities. One important advantage of chi square lies in certain additive properties, which make possible the combination of several statistics or other values in the same test. Thus, a hypothesis involving more than one set of data at a time can be tested for significance. By definition, a chi square is the sum of ratios (any number can be summed). Each ratio is that between a squared discrepancy or difference and an expected frequency. The discrepancy is between an obtained frequency and a frequency expected on the basis of the hypothesis being tested.[1]

Tables one and two are representations of the research design. These three-way contingency tables use observed frequencies in each cell, while expected frequencies are computed from marginal totals.

The partitioning of chi square allows one to test the following null hypotheses:[2]

1. Factors A, B and C are mutually independent.
2. Factors A and B are independent.

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[1] J. P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1956), pp. 228-229.

[2] B. J. Winer, Statistical Principles in Experimental Design (New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1962), p. 630.

TABLE 1

THREE-WAY CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR HEALTH, FRIENDS, WORK AND SECURITY CATEGORIES

Item	Health		Friends		Work		Security	
R	Positive Response	Negative Response	Positive Response	Negative Response	Positive Response	Negative Response	Positive Response	Negative Response
A_1	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency
A_2	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency

R= Response
A_1= Experimental
A_2= Control

TABLE 2

THREE-WAY CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR RELIGION, USEFULNESS, HAPPINESS AND FAMILY CATEGORIES

Item	Religion		Usefulness		Happiness		Family	
R	Positive Response	Negative Response	Positive Response	Negative Response	Positive Response	Negative Response	Positive Response	Negative Response
A_1	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency
A_2	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency	Observed Frequency

R = Response
A_1 = Experimental
A_2 = Control

3. Factors A and C are independent.

4. Factors B and C are independent.

5. Interaction effect of A, B and C is zero.

In the above hypotheses, factor A is working with deprived children or not working with them, and it is the experimental variable. Factor B is the response (positive or negative) to the item. Factor C is the item from the inventory. The formulas used to test the above hypotheses and determine their degrees of freedom are found in Table 3.[1]

TABLE 3

PARTITION OF CHI SQUARE

Source	Chi Square	Degrees of Freedom
Total	$\chi^2_{total}=\Sigma\Sigma\Sigma\{(O_{ijk}-E_{ijk})^2/E_{ijk}\}$	df=(a)(b)(c)-(a+b+c-2)
AB	$\chi^2_{ab}=\Sigma\Sigma\{(\Sigma O_{ij}-E_{ij})^2/\Sigma E_{ij}\}$	df=(a-1)(b-1)
AC	$\chi^2_{ac}=\Sigma\Sigma\{(\Sigma O_{ik}-E_{ik})^2/\Sigma E_{ik}\}$	df=(a-1)(c-1)
BC	$\chi^2_{bc}=\Sigma\Sigma\{(\Sigma O_{jk}-E_{jk})^2/\Sigma E_{jk}\}$	df=(b-1)(c-1)
ABC	$\chi^2_{abc}=\chi^2_{total}-\chi^2_{ab}-\chi^2_{ac}-\chi^2_{abc}$	df=(a-1)(b-1)(c-1)

For the above formulas O_{ijk} is the observed frequency in cell i, j, and k. E_{ijk} is the expected frequency in cell i, j and k. The number of levels in the factors is represented by a, b and c.

[1] Ibid., p. 631.

If there is a significance of the interaction term (χ^2_{ABC}) the interpretation of the main effects must be qualified. Therefore, post hoc tests must be performed to clarify the results and to allow for meaningful interpretations using the following chi square formula.[1]

$$\chi^2 = \frac{N(|AD-BC| - \frac{N}{2})^2}{(A+B)(C+D)(A+C)(B+D)}$$

In the above formula, A is the number of positive responses given by the experimental group; B is the number of negative responses given by the experimental group; C is the number of positive responses given by the control group; D is the number of negative responses given by the control group; and N is the total number of responses for both groups.

Sample.--The Foster Grandparent Program is an Older Worker Program of the Office of Economic Opportunity. This program recruits, trains and employs low-income persons aged sixty and over to serve as foster grandparents to institutionalized children who lack close relationships with adults. The program has several objectives:

1. To create employment opportunities for older persons.
2. To enable older persons with low incomes maintain a sense of dignity and usefulness by providing them with new roles and functions.
3. To demonstrate, through the employment of men and women over age sixty with low incomes, a major new resource of responsible workers for community and social agencies.[2]

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[1] J. P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1962), p. 236.

[2] Philadelphia Foster Grandparent Program, (Health and Welfare Council, Inc., A United Fund Agency), p. 2.

The program employed sixty-eight men and women who were assigned to three child care institutions. Each foster grandparent worked four hours a day, five days a week, for a total of twenty hours a week. Each is assigned at least one child, more often two. The foster grandparent received careful supervision from members of the institutional staff and was given the status of part-time staff member.

The sixty-eight persons who were employed as foster grandparents comprised the experimental group. This type of sampling is known as incidental sampling. The term "incidental sampling" is applied to those samples that are taken because they are most available.[1]

The main characteristic of the group was that they were sixty years of age and over, in reasonably good health, able to use public transportation, and their income from all sources falls below the poverty level set by the Office of Economic Opportunity--$1600 for one person.[2]

The director of the Foster Grandparent Program supplied the investigator with the names and addresses of the foster grandparents and the waiting list of three hundred applicants. From the waiting list a control group of one hundred persons were selected for the study.

To select the control group the technique of random sampling was applied. The waiting list was alphabetized and each applicant was given a number from one to three hundred. Using every third case one hundred individuals were selected.

The procedure which the Foster Grandparent Program used to select

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[1]Guilford, op. cit., p. 159.

[2]Foster Grandparents, op. cit., p. 4.

foster grandparents was two-fold: (1) an interview by a panel of selected members of the Foster Grandparents staff; and (2) an interview by the child care institutional staffs that employed the grandparents. Both the foster grandparents and the three hundred applicants have experienced this procedure and have the qualifications to perform as foster grandparents. Therefore, it was assumed that both groups were equivalent except for their participation in the program.

Since its inception, there have been only a limited number of persons who left the program for reasons other than death. The investigator was unable to contact those persons who left the program.

Data Collection.--The interview technique was used to collect the data. A letter[1] with an enclosed return addressed stamped card[2] was mailed to the experimental group, (N=68) and to the control group (N=100). This correspondence established a mutually convenient time for an interview. Sixty-four of the persons in the experimental group and seventy individuals in the control group consented to being interviewed.

An average of fourteen interviews a week were conducted for a period of ten weeks, commencing January 17, 1969 and terminating March 28, 1969.

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[1]See Appendix A, p. 64.

[2]See Appendix B, p. 65.

CHAPTER II

THE POPULATION

A demographic discussion of the population used in the study must be made in order to better understand their responses to the questionnaire. The attributes of the elderly discussed will be age, education, marital status, sexual composition, and number of children.

Table 4 is an illustration of the age range of the respondents. The mean age of the experimental group was sixty-eight years and sixty-four years for the control group.

TABLE 4

AGE RANGE OF RESPONDENTS
ACCORDING TO GROUP

Ages	Experimental	Control
62-66	25	21
67-71	25	24
72-76	12	13
77-81	2	12

The highest grade attainment of the two groups is illustrated in Table 5. Eight years and four months schooling was the mean attainment of the experimental group. Seven years and eight months schooling was the mean completed by the control group. The mode for both groups was the eighth grade. Two respondents in the experimental group attended

TABLE 5

HIGHEST GRADE ATTAINED

Grade	Experimental	Control
1-6	13	24
7-9	30	24
10-12	19	18
College	2	3

college; one graduated. None of the respondents in the control group completed college, but three had attended.

The cell data shown in Table 6 depicts the marital status by groups. In the experimental group, eight were married, six were divorced, forty-seven were widowed, and three had never married. In the control group, fifteen were married, nine were divorced, forty-two were widowed, and four had never married.

TABLE 6

MARITAL STATUS FOR EACH GROUP

Status	Experimental	Control
Married	8	15
Divorced	6	9
Widowed	47	42
Single	3	4

Table 7 illustrates that both the experimental and control groups were primarily composed of females. The greater number of females in this study is not unique to it alone. Census figures show that there is

TABLE 7

COMPOSITION OF GROUPS BY SEX

Sex	Experimental	Control
Male	5	6
Female	59	64

a tendency toward greater longevity in females.[1] Perhaps this is due to their greater adaptability to changes in roles, or to the societal expectations that females are more attuned to changes in status and role. Landis reported that women adjust to old age easier than men.[2] Contrary to this, Beckman, Williams and Fisher indicated that satisfactory adjustment in later years was unrelated to sex.[3]

Table 8 shows the number of children of the respondents by group. The families of the experimental group averaged 3.5 children. There was an average of 4.2 children in the families of the control group. The mode for both groups is three.

The respondents may be collectively thought of as an urban residential group as they all reside in greater Philadelphia; a group possessing a minimum amount of education; a group having a low education

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[1]U. S. Bureau of the Census, "Marital Status and Family by Status: March, 1961," Current Population Reports, Series P20, No. 114, (January 31, 1962), p. 1.

[2]Judson Landis, "Social Psychological Factors in Aging," Social Forces, XX (May, 1942), 468.

[3]R. D. Beckman, et. al., "An Index of Adjustment to Life Maturity," Geriatrics, XIII (October, 1958), 667.

TABLE 8

NUMBER OF CHILDREN OF
THE RESPONDENTS BY GROUP

Number of Children	Experimental	Control
0	7	10
1	9	4
2	9	5
3	12	11
4	8	6
5	5	10
6	1	7
7	6	7
8	6	6
9	0	1
10	1	1
11	0	1
12	0	1

attainment; a group having moderate sized families; a group well advanced in years; a group composed primarily of females; and a group of which the greater number were widowed.

CHAPTER III

ADJUSTMENT OF THE ELDERLY ACCORDING TO HEALTH, FRIENDS, WORK AND SECURITY

The statistical technique, partition of chi square,[1] was employed after the data were collected and scored. This statistic will show if there is a relationship between treatment, interaction with deprived children, and response of the individual, positive or negative, to the questionnaire.

The questionnaires were scored using method B cited on page 30. By taking the difference between the favorable and unfavorable responses for each item within a category, an overall assessment is assigned to that category. If for example, there were four or more negative responses within a category, then the total score for that category would be negative.

Table 9 illustrates the observed frequencies for both the experimental and control groups for each category of the inventory. Marginal totals represent the sums of the frequencies within each category. For example, in order to compute the marginal total of the experimental group (A_1), the cell frequencies (both positive and negative) are summed across

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[1]Partition is the separation of a class or whole into constituent elements. Partition of chi square is the subdivision of the observed and expected frequencies into parts which will indicate effects due to the factors (treatment, response and question).

categories (e.g. health, friends etc.) yielding a value of 512. A value of 560 was obtained for the control group (A_2). The marginal total for positive responses was found by adding the positive cell frequencies for both the experimental and control groups within a category and summing these sub-totals across the eight categories. This value equaled 974. A value of 98 was obtained for the negative responses of both groups across all categories. The marginal total for each individual category is 134 and was obtained by summing all frequencies (positive and negative) in each cell.

The partitioning of chi square is illustrated in Table 10 on page 44. To obtain these scores the formulas in Table 2 were used.[1]

In Table 10, A is treatment, working with deprived children or not working with them. Factor B is the response (positive or negative) to the category. Factor C is the category from the inventory.

Chi square tested the mutual independence between variables A, B and C (treatment, response and category). With 22 degrees of freedom, a value of 33.9 is required for significance at the .05 level.[2] The obtained value of chi square was 121.63 which is significant beyond the .01 level. Therefore A, B and C (treatment, response and category) are not mutually independent. One could hypothesize that relationships exist among these variables. In order to evaluate this assertion, each possible interaction among the variables was examined.

The AB interaction, a test for independence between treatment and

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[1]See Table 2, p. 32.

[2]Winer, op. cit., p. 655.

TABLE 9

OBSERVED FREQUENCIES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS FOR THE EIGHT CATEGORIES OF THE ATTITUDE INVENTORY

Item	Health		Friends		Work		Security		Religion		Use-fulness		Happi-ness		Family	
R	Positive Response	Negative Response	Positive Response	Negative Response	Positive Response	Negative Response	Postive Response	Negative Response	Positive Response	Negative Response	Positive Response	Negative Response	Positive Response	Negative Response	Positive Response	Negative Response
A_1	62	2	62	2	56	8	49	15	62	2	64	0	64	0	63	1
A_2	65	5	69	1	48	22	52	18	70	0	62	8	65	5	61	9

R = Response
A_1 = Experimental
A_2 = Control

response yielded a chi square value of 12.71. With one degree of freedom, any value of chi square greater than 3.84 is significant at the .05 level.[1] Therefore, the hypothesis of independence between treatment and response could not be accepted. As a whole, the experimental group responded more positively than the control group as shown in Table 9. When one examines the total responses across all categories, 94 percent of the experimental group responded positively. Eighty-four percent of the control group responded positively. This difference is statistically significant. The participation in the foster grandparent program is a factor in producing positive attitudes toward adjustment to old age.

TABLE 10

PARTITIONING OF CHI SQUARE FOR THE THREE INTERACTION TERMS

Source	Chi Square	Degree of Freedom	Probability
Total	121.63	22.00	.05
AB	12.71	1.00	.05
AC	0.00	7.00	Not Significant
BC	93.40	7.00	.05
ABC	15.52	7.00	.05

The AC interaction, a test for independence between treatment and individual category yielded a chi square value of 0.00, which is not significant.[2] Therefore, one could conclude that treatment and the

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[1] Ibid., p. 655.

[2] Ibid., p. 655.

individual categories are independent of each other.

It would appear that the sub-categories of the instrument are relatively insensitive to the measurement of the variables under consideration. The instrument as a whole, however, is able to detect differences between treatment as measured by the AB interaction. This is somewhat analogous to an individual's score on an achievement test. A single item may fail to reveal the extent of an individual's knowledge, while the total score may tend to place him in a high, middle or low achieving group. The reason for this might be that no single piece of information can be highly valid or reliable for the prediction of a criterion, whereas several pieces of information can be. For example, a college admissions officer can more accurately predict future achievement using high school rank, college entrance examination score and a personal interview together than he could if he used only one piece of this information. Some of the items in the sub-categories may not discriminate at all; thus, this produces a dampening effect on the sub-category score.

The BC interaction (See Table 9), a test for independence between response and individual category, yielded a value of 93.40. With seven degrees of freedom, any value of chi square greater than 14.06 is significant at the .05 level.[1] Therefore, the hypothesis of independence between response and individual category could not be accepted. An examination of the observed frequencies in Table 9 revealed that the respondents, regardless of group, tended to respond to different categories

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[1] Ibid., p. 655.

in different ways. Because the foster grandparent program had a differential effect between the experimental and control groups, depending upon the variable measured, the BC interaction was obtained. The groups responded more positively on the usefulness and happiness categories (See Table 9) than on the work and security categories. From our knowledge of the life patterns of the elderly, these results would be expected.

The test for determining the mutual independence of treatment response and individual category was determined by analyzing the three-way interaction between these variables.[1] With 7 degrees of freedom at the .05 level any figure which exceeds 14.1 is significant.[2] Since chi square ABC equaled 15.52, which is greater than 14.1, it is significant. Therefore, treatment, response and individual category are not mutually independent of each other. This is to say that the treatment by response interaction changes as a function of the category, or the treatment by category interaction varies as a function of the type of response (positive or negative), or response by category interaction is different for the two treatment groups (experimental and control).

Because of the significance and mutual dependence of the triple interaction term, chi square ABC (treatment, response and individual category), post hoc tests were used to qualify the results. The post hoc testing studied each of the eight two way tables using the following chi

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[1]See Table 10, p. 44.

[2]Winer, op. cit., p. 655.

square formula:[1]

$$\chi^2 = \frac{N(Ad-BC-\frac{N}{2})^2}{(A+B)(C+D)(A+C)(B+D}$$

Health

Old age has been characterized as a time of illness, often of a chronic nature; the individual is more susceptible to certain diseases when physiological failure is more common and when homeostatic balance becomes upset.[2] Since ill health, with its attendant economic, social and psychological consequences is a major problem facing older people and has a crucial bearing on the fundamental aspects of their adjustment, the respondent's health was given first attention.

The observed health frequencies of the respondents is depicted in Table 11.

TABLE 11

OBSERVED HEALTH FREQUENCIES

Group	Positive Response	Negative Response
Experimental	62	2
Control	65	5

The computation shows that chi square is .43 for the health category.[3] At the .05 level a chi square value of 3.8 or greater indi-

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[1] Guilford, op. cit., p. 236.

[2] Kutner, Growing Old, p. 125.

[3] $\chi^2 = \frac{134(130-310-67)^2}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 127 \cdot 7} = \frac{134(113)(113)}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 127 \cdot 7} = \frac{1,711,046}{3,989,720} = .43$

cates a significant difference.[1] Since the obtained chi square was less than 3.8, the indication is that there are no significant differences between the experimental and control groups in their responses to the health category of the Attitude Inventory. Both groups perceived their health status positively.

Ninety-six percent of all persons aged sixty-five in the United States live in the community, while four percent live in institutions. Among aged persons in the community, two percent are bed-fast at home; and an additional six percent are housebound. Of the remaining, eighty-six percent can go outdoors without difficulty; and six percent have trouble leaving their homes.[2] Most old people, then, are functioning well.

Friends

When close friends or peers die, their deaths place a great emotional stress on older persons. When one hears of the death of someone his own age, the thought inevitably comes that perhaps his own death is imminent. This tends to intensify feelings of futility, hopelessness, depression and modes of thinking which lead to a general condition of maladjustment.

Table 12 illustrates the observed frequencies of the respondents to the friends category of the study instrument.

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[1]Winer, op. cit., p. 655.

[2]Ethel Shanas, et. al., Old People in Three Industrial Societies (New York: and London: Atherton Press, in press), Chapter II.

TABLE 12

OBSERVED FRIENDS FREQUENCIES

Group	Positive Response	Negative Response
Experimental	62	2
Control	69	1

The computation for this category shows that chi square equaled .006.[1] As this figure does not exceed 3.8, which must be exceeded for a vlaue to be significant,[2] the indication is that there is no significant difference between the two groups.

For some individuals, whose personal and inner resources are significantly strong, old age may provide the only period in life when they may be alone. Although man is a social animal, at least, some prefer non-human companionship or utter privacy in the later years.[3]

Work

Unemployment is at a minimum at the ages 34-44; it rises gradually between 45 and 64.[4] Therefore, a large portion of the population over sixty faces unemployment. Unemployment for the older person may be traumatic; for in our culture, work has a unique value. Being employed

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[1] $\chi^2 = \frac{134(138-62-67)^2}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 131 \cdot 3} = \frac{134(9)(9)}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 131 \cdot 3} = \frac{10,854}{1,760,640} = .006$

[2] Winer, op. cit., p. 655.

[3] Kutner, Growing Old, p. 118.

[4] John J. Corson and John W. McConnell, Economic Needs of Older People (New York: The Twentieth Century Fund, 1956), p. 54.

is a symbol of worth, success and achievement. Work confers status and prestige on the worker which he can acquire in no other way. The lack of self-maintaining work is a symbol of social failure, a visible justification for the inferior social status given to the aged in our society.[1]

> Often only through work does the individual develop his meaningful social contacts, expresses his creative interests, makes his contribution to society, and achieves status in the community. In a real sense, therefore, for many workers, work is more than earning a living. It is a way of life.[2]

One of the alleged benefits derived from retirement and of old age generally is that it may bring greater freedom. For some people, it is a time for doing as one pleases. With ample free time, one can spend many hours at home with one's family.[3]

In the present study, one group, the experimental, is employed and the other group, the control, is not. Table 13 shows the observed work frequencies of the two groups.

TABLE 13

OBSERVED WORK FREQUENCIES

Group	Positive Response	Negative Response
Experimental	56	8
Control	48	22

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[1]Geneva Mathiason, Criteria for Retirement (New York: G. P. Putnam Sons, 1953), p. 64.

[2]Jacob Turkman and Lorge Irving, Retirement and the Industrial Worker: Prospect and Reality (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953), p. 90.

[3]Kutner, Growing Old, p. 103.

From the computation, chi square equals 5.8.[1] As this score exceeds the significance level of 3.8,[2] the indication is that there is a significant difference at the .05 level between the experimental and control groups on the work category. The observed frequencies indicate that the experimental group responded more positively than did the control group. This difference in responses can be attributed to the fact that the experimental group is involved with the activities of the foster grandparent program. Accordingly, their attitudes toward work were positively affected.

Security

One of the criteria for making application to become a foster grandparent is that one must be a member of the low income bracket. Members of this economic group tend to be insecure individuals. Their insecurity may be attributed to their low financial status.

The respondents of the study exemplified the characteristics of insecurity as measured by the Attitude Inventory (See Table 14).

TABLE 14

OBSERVED SECURITY FREQUENCIES

Group	Positive Response	Negative Response
Experimental	49	15
Control	52	18

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[1] $\chi^2 = \frac{134(384-1232-67)^2}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 104 \cdot 30} = \frac{134(781)(781)}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 104 \cdot 30} = \frac{81,734,774}{13,977,600} = 5.8$

[2] Winer, op. cit., p. 655.

Chi square equaled 0.001[1] which does not exceed 3.8;[2] therefore it is not significant at the .05 level. Even though there was no significant difference between the responses of the two groups, both tended to respond negatively to the security category. If low income contributes to feelings of insecurity, then one would expect negative responses to be present in both the experimental and control groups. The data revealed that this situation existed among members of the study population. In an age of inflation, those with a fixed income may manifest anxiety.

In this chapter, partitioning of chi square in a three-way contingency table was used to examine the data. The major findings of the health, friends, work and security categories were noted.

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[1] $\chi^2 = \frac{134(780-882-67^2}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 101 \cdot 33} = \frac{134(35)(35)}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 101 \cdot 33} = \frac{164,150}{14,931,840} = .001$

[2] Winer, op. cit., p. 655.

CHAPTER IV

ADJUSTMENT OF THE ELDERLY ACCORDING TO RELIGION, USEFULNESS, HAPPINESS AND FAMILY

Religion

The churches' function, in part, for aged persons is to assure the continued availability of spiritual counselling, comfort and fellowship. The churches appreciate the changes in the life and resources of the aged. Special measures are often adopted by congregations to insure participation of aged members.

The aged should not be isolated as special groups within church programs, but it may be proper to establish special programs for the aged in addition to the general activities of the congregation.

Of all the categories offered to the respondents in the questionnaire, the questions and statements referring to religion prompted the most concern and outward sincerity. Table 15 shows that both groups depend on religion greatly by their positive responses to the religion category.

TABLE 15

OBSERVED RELIGION FREQUENCIES

Group	Positive Response	Negative Response
Experimental	62	2
Control	70	0

For this category, 0.6 was the figure obtained from the chi square computation.[1] Since a value of 3.8 is needed for significance at the .05 level,[2] one may conclude that there is no significant difference between the two groups with respect to the religion category. It is possible that religion was equally important to all within the study regardless of group membership. From our knowledge of the life patterns of the elderly, we know that this group tends to be extremely religious. Therefore, the positive responses to this category are expected.

Usefulness

Many studies dealing with retirement point to the positive value of a hobby or related activities. Useful activities which keep one occupied and interested seem to be desired by the participants in Gilbert's study.[3] In many instances, a hobby, particularly if it is one which evokes admiration, will restore an older person's ego and will make him feel once again that life is still worth living. In other words, the taking on of a hobby in old age can often uncover latent talents and stimulate a new interest in living.[4]

Retirement brings the worker and his family the gift of leisure time. In retirement, they find themselves not only with a low income

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[1] $\chi^2 = \frac{134(0-140-67)^2}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 132 \cdot 2} = \frac{134(73)(73)}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 132 \cdot 2} = \frac{714,086}{1,182,720} = .6$

[2] Ibid., p. 655.

[3] Janne G. Gilbert, Understanding Old Age (New York: Rolands Press Co., 1952), p. 170.

[4] Robert E. Rothenberg, Health in the Later Years (New York: New American Library, 1964), p. 351.

but without meaningful activity.[1] Wives of retired men often report that their husbands' new leisure creates problems for them. They are not accustomed to having a man around the house during the usual work hours.[2]

Retirement is not only a social change for the individual; it is also an event which causes the individual to re-evaluate himself and his sense of self-worth. Lowenthal reported that retirement is one of the factors associated with low morale, regardless of whether or not it results in reduced social interaction on the part of the retired person.[3]

The respondents in this study tended to score positively on the usefulness category. These responses are illustrated in Table 16.

TABLE 16

OBSERVED USEFULNESS FREQUENCIES

Group	Positive Response	Negative Response
Experimental	64	0
Control	62	8

Both the experimental and control groups tended to score positively on the usefulness category; however, the computation showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups.

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[1]Havinghurst, Age With A Future, p. 425.

[2]Shanas, op. cit., p. 102.

[3]Marjorie Fiske Lowenthal and Deetje Boler, "Voluntary Versus Involuntary Social Withdrawal," Journal of Gerontology, XX (July, 1965), 370.

Chi square equaled 5.9.[1] At the .05 level, this value is significant because it exceeds the critical value of 3.8.[2] It is possible that individuals who work with children perceive themselves as being more useful than those who are not because of the contributions they make to the children.

Happiness

When a person reaches that period known as "old age" in our society, there is a tendency for the individual to no longer be as happy as when he was younger. This is supposedly due, in part, to a breakdown in accustomed activities. Often the individual loses the desire to live. The respondents in the present study did not portray this feeling of unhappiness (See Table 17). The positive responses shown indicate that the respondents are relatively happy individuals.

TABLE 17

OBSERVED HAPPINESS FREQUENCIES

Group	Positive Response	Negative Response
Experimental	64	0
Control	65	5

For the happiness category the chi square computation equaled

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[1] $\chi^2 = \frac{134(0-512-67)^2}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 126 \cdot 8} = \frac{134(445)(445)}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 126 \cdot 8} = \frac{26,535,350}{4,515,840} = 5.9$

[2] Winer, op. cit., p. 655.

2.9[1] which did not exceed the critical value of 3.8.[2] Therefore, there is no significant difference between the responses of the two groups indicating that they both have a high degree of happiness. Possibly, the notion that elderly adults are necessarily unhappy is false.

Family

Of all the institutions which condition the behavior and adjustment of the individual, perhaps none is more important than the family.[3] This is particularly true for older people, inasmuch as the later years often mark a decline of active participation in other institutions.

Living alone is a characteristic of many elderly persons. This is particularly true for women because of their longer life expectancy. Thus, there is a strong tendency for widows in the later years to join the households of their children, especially when they begin to realize their increasing loss of independence. The term, "three generation family," is used primarily to describe this situation in which older parents reside in the households of their adult children.[4]

In the present study the majority of the respondents were widows and lived alone. Their observed family frequencies indicated that they maintained positive relationships with their families.

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[1] $\chi^2 = \frac{134(0-320-67)^2}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 129 \cdot 5} = \frac{134(253)(253)}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 129 \cdot 5} = \frac{8,577,206}{2,889,600} = 2.9$

[2] Winer, op. cit., p. 655.

[3] Clark Tibbits, Handbook of Social Gerontology: Societal Aspects of Aging (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1960), p. 709.

[4] Ibid., p. 709.

TABLE 18

OBSERVED FAMILY FREQUENCIES

Group	Positive Response	Negative Response
Experimental	63	1
Control	61	9

The chi square computation for the family category equaled 4.6.[1] Since 3.8 is the critical value for the .05 level of significance[2] and 4.6 exceeds this score, the indication is that there is a significant difference between the responses of the two groups to the family category of the inventory. There are two possible explanations for this difference. First, working with young children may give the elderly adult the feeling of a familial relationship in which the child is perceived as "the" family. Second, the positive feeling generated in the relationship with the child may influence his feelings toward his own family.

In this chapter the major findings of the religion, usefulness, happiness and family categories were noted.

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[1] $\chi^2 = \frac{134(61-567-67)^2}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 124 \cdot 10} = \frac{134(439)(439)}{64 \cdot 70 \cdot 124 \cdot 10} = \frac{25,824,614}{5,555,200} = 4.6$

[2] Winer, op. cit., p. 655.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The process of aging brings about changes in an individual's life patterns. These changes may be biological, psychological or sociological. They include alterations in housing and accustomed living arrangements, retirement, modification in homeostatic balances, lowering of income, reduction in physical activity, loss of independence due to the need for someone to aid in the maintenance of life processes, losing loved ones and peers and the alteration of community roles. To be useful during this period in life, adjustment must be made to these changes. Whether a person adjusts or not depends upon his family's attitudes, his adaptability to change, his personality and his attitude toward affecting change.

Ruth Cavan's "Chicago Attitude Inventory," an inventory that measures an individual's attitude toward various aspects of existence, was used to measure personal adjustment. Positive and negative scores were determined by the way each individual responded to the eight categories on the questionnaire. If an individual gave four or more positive responses to a category, his score for that section is positive; however, if he gave four or more negative responses in a category, his score is negative. Scores were derived for each of the following eight categories--health, security, work, usefulness, friends, religion, family and happiness.

The statistical technique, partitioning of chi square in a three-way contingency table, showed that there was a relationship between treatment, interaction with deprived children and the responses of the individual, positive or negative, to the questionnaire.

Since there was a relationship between the triple interaction terms (treatment, response and individual category), post hoc testing using chi square was performed on each of the eight two-way tables.

The post hoc testing revealed no significant differences at the .05 level between the two groups in the following five categories; health, friends, religion, happiness and security. Significant differences at the .05 level were found in the following categories: work, usefulness and family. The differences were toward the experimental group.

The significant difference between the groups on the work and usefulness category may be due to the control group being without some useful work-like activity. Elderly adults who work with deprived children might perceive themselves as being useful because of this function.

There are two reasons why the difference might have occurred on the family category. First, the deprived child might be perceived as "the family." Second, the positive feeling generated in the relationship with the child may influence the elderly adults feeling toward his own family.

The testing failed to reject five of the null hypotheses. They are:

1. There is no significant difference at the .05 level between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not in their responses to the health category of the Attitude Inventory.

2. There is no significant difference at the .05 level between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not in their responses to the friends category of the Attitude Inventory.

3. There is no significant difference at the .05 level between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not in their responses to the security category of the Attitude Inventory.

4. There is no significant difference at the .05 level between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not in their responses to the religion category of the Attitude Inventory.

5. There is no significant difference at the .05 level between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not in their responses to the happiness category of the Attitude Inventory.

The following three null hypotheses were rejected as a result of the post hoc tests:

1. There is no significant difference at the .05 level between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not in their responses to the work category of the Attitude Inventory.

2. There is no significant difference at the .05 level between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not in their responses to the usefulness category of the Attitude Inventory.

3. There is no significant difference at the .05 level between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not in their responses to the family category of the Attitude Inventory.

The findings of Folsom and Morgan's study showed that there were four factors associated with good adjustment to old age. They are friends, work, family, and usefulness. The present study supported

those findings, in that people who tended to score positively on the total inventory, responded positively on these four categories.

The reduced status role, according to Meier and Bell, is largely responsible for a decrease in life satisfaction. The current investigation substantiates their findings, in that the group which no longer made any worthwhile contribution to society had more negative responses than the group which was making a contribution.

Lipman's study indicated that good family relationships ranked first with old people. The old people in this study ranked religion first; apparently they were more religiously oriented.

Conclusion

The present investigation indicated that programs which employ elderly adults could be beneficial in developing positive attitudes toward old age on the part of these adults. This position is taken on the basis of the following: ninety-four percent of the experimental group responded positively to the total inventory, while in the control group, there was only eighty-four percent positive response; the elderly adults who were employed as foster grandparents scored significantly more positively as a group on the usefulness and work categories of the inventory.

A proponent of the activity approach to successful aging would predict significant differences in categories that are related to activity. These differences would be expected to favor the experimental group. Those categories which are related to activity are: work, usefulness and security. Only on the work and usefulness categories were

there significant differences. On the security category, there was no significant difference between the groups; however, of all the categories offered to the respondents, it was on this category that there was a preponderence of negative responses. The reason for this might be that both groups were similar in all respects except for working with deprived children. Both groups probably have similar security expectations since one group is employed by the foster grandparent program and the other group is on the waiting list for employment. Therefore, we can assume that the entire sample is one which manifests insecurity.

The similarities in all areas except for working with deprived children may be the reason for the preponderence of positive responses by both groups on the religion category. Therefore, we can assume that the elderly adults in this study are religiously oriented.

Proponents of the disengagement approach to successful aging believe that when elderly adults gradually detach themselves from activities and attitudes of middle age as they grow older, their degree of adjustment will be higher. These theorists would predict significant differences favoring the control group on the inventory. However, on the categories health, friends, security, religion and family there were no significant differences. On the work, usefulness and happiness categories there were differences; however, the differences did not favor the group which exemplifies the disengagement approach.

Therefore, the activity approach to successful adjustment to old age appears to be superior to the disengagement approach.

APPENDIX A

(ENCLOSED CARD)

FRONT

Robert Morgan

6439 Greene Street

Apartment D-1

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19119

BACK

Name (typed in)

Address (typed in)

I will consent to being interviewed Yes____ No___

on (Date)____(Time)_____

This date is not convenient for me, however this one is,

(Date)_____ (Time)_____

APPENDIX B

6439 Greene Street
Apartment D-1
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19119

Dear

My name is Robert Morgan and I am a researcher from Atlanta University, Atlanta, Georgia. Presently, I am in the Philadelphia area conducting a study of the effects of contact between elderly adults and small children.

Mr. Andrew Laurenson, Director of the Philadelphia Foster Grandparents Program, gave me your name because he feels that you are an individual who will give a few minutes of your time to benefit research.

As this study is being conducted to benefit the study of aging, all information will be kept confidential.

If you will consent to being interviewed on
at , please check the appropriate space on the enclosed card and put it in the mail.

Sincerely,

Robert Morgan

APPENDIX C

Background Information

1. Sex of respondent M_____ F_____.

2. How old were you on your last birthday?_____.

3. What was the last grade level of school that you finished?

   No schooling_____

   Grades: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

   High School: 9 10 11 12

   College: 1 2 3 4

   Post Graduate: 1 2 3 4

4. Marital Status

   Single_____
   Married_____
   Seperated_____
   Widowed_____
   Divorced_____

5. How many children do you have?_____

6. Are you employed by the Foster Grandparent Program?_____

APPENDIX D

ATTITUDE INVENTORY[1]

For the questions listed below the respondents will indicate either agree, disagree or undecided.

HEALTH

1. I feel just miserable most of the time.
2. I am perfectly satisfied with my health.
3. I have never felt better in my life.
4. If I can't feel better soon, I would just as soon die.
5. When I was younger I felt a little better than I do now.
6. My health is just beginning to be a burden to me.
7. I still feel young and full of spirit.

FRIENDS

1. I have more friends now than I ever had before.
2. I never dreamed that I could be as lonely as I am now.
3. I would be happier if I could see my friends more often.
4. I have no one to talk to about personal things.
5. I have so few friends that I am lonely much of the time.
6. My many friends make my life happy and cheerful.
7. I have all the good friends anyone would wish.

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[1] Cavan, op. cit., pp. 158-159.

WORK

1. I am happy only when I have definite work to do.
2. I can no longer do any kind of useful work.
3. I am satisfied with the work I now do.
4. I have no work to look forward to.
5. I get badly upset when I have to hurry with my work.
6. I have more free time than I know how to use.
7. I do better work now than ever before.

SECURITY

1. Financially, I am just able to make ends meet.
2. I have enough money to get along.
3. I haven't a cent in the world.
4. All my needs are cared for.
5. I am provided with many comforts.
6. I have everything that money can buy.
7. I have to watch how I spend every penny.

RELIGION

1. Religion is fairly important in my life.
2. I have no use for religion.
3. Religion is a great comfort to me.
4. I don't rely on prayer to help me.
5. Religion doesn't mean much to me.
6. Religion is the most important thing in my life.
7. Religion is only one of many interests.

USEFULNESS

1. I am some use to those around me.
2. My life is meaningless now.
3. The days are too short for all I want to do.
4. Sometimes I feel there's just no point in living.
5. My life is still busy and useful.
6. This is the most useful period of my life.
7. I can't help feeling now that my life is not very useful.

HAPPINESS

1. This is the dreariest time of my life.
2. I am just as happy as when I was younger.
3. My life could be happier than it is now.
4. I seem to have less and less reason to live.
5. These are the best years of my life.
6. My life is full of worry.

FAMILY

1. My family likes to have me around.
2. I am perfectly satisfied with the way my family treats me.
3. I wish my family would pay more attention to me.
4. I think my family is the finest in the world.
5. My family is always trying to boss me.
6. I get more love and affection now than I ever did before.
7. My family does not really care for me.

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ABSTRACT

SOCIOLOGY

MORGAN, ROBERT B. A., Morehouse College 1964

An Analysis of the Personal Adjustment to Old Age by Elderly Citizens When They Interact With Deprived Children

Adviser: Professor Tilman C. Cothran

Master of Arts degree conferred June 1, 1970

Thesis dated June 1970

Purpose.--The purpose of the study was to determine if interaction with deprived children had any effect on the personal adjustment to old age by elderly citizens.

Hypotheses.--Eight aspects related to the personal adjustment of elderly adults were selected for investigation. They were: health, friends, work, security, religion, usefulness, happiness and family. The hypothesis used to test these variables was:

> There is no significant difference ($p < .05$) between elderly adults who interact with deprived children and elderly adults who do not, with respect to their personal adjustment to old age as measured by their total score on the Attitude Inventory developed by Ruth Cavan.

Methodology.--The sample was drawn from the Philadelphia Foster Grandparent Program funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity. To collect the data, the interview technique was used.

Ruth Cavan's "Chicago Attitude Inventory," an inventory that measures an individual's attitude toward various aspects of life, was used to measure personal adjustment.

After the data were collected and scored, a partitioning of chi

square in a three-way contingency table was used to ascertain if there was a relationship between treatment, interaction with deprived children, and the response of the individual to the questionnaire.

Findings and conclusions.--The statistical analysis revealed no significant differences at the .05 level between the experimental and control groups in the following five categories: health, friends, religion, happiness and security. However, significant differences were found in the following categories: work, usefulness and family. The differences favored the experimental group.

The present investigation indicated that programs which employ elderly adults could be beneficial in developing positive attitudes toward old age on the part of these adults. Also, the activity approach to successful adjustment to old age appears to be more applicable than the disengagement approach.